



1 of two sisters, Lucia and Miranda Bok, and their mother, who dies of lung cancer.  
2 Miranda and her mother moved to the US while the mother was pregnant with  
3 Lucia after their father had died in an alleged accident. Lucia is thus born a  
4 citizen of the US, unlike her immigrant sister, who also becomes a US citizen.  
5 This difference in birthplace shapes the sisters' opposite personalities: Miranda  
6 embodies the responsible, conservative Chinese daughter, while Lucia is free-  
7 spirited, exemplifying the freedom afforded to her as a citizen of the US. At the  
8 centre of the novel is Lucia's deteriorating mental health and its effects on both  
9 sisters' relationships — with each other and with their respective partners. While  
10 I will touch on the sibling dynamic, this paper focuses primarily on Lucia's  
11 relationship with Manny, and the ways in which his experiences with illegal  
12 immigration shape the gender relations between them. It is through this  
13 relationship that the novel resists easy categorisation of Lucia's madness,  
14 presenting it as fluid and contextual — shaped as much by her circumstances  
15 and relationships as by any internal psychological condition. Rather than a fixed  
16 clinical state, her madness is exacerbated or relieved by the geographical and  
17 gendered power shifts she navigates as a migrant woman. I argue that the novel  
18 presents madness not as a purely individual or psychological condition, but as  
19 something produced at the intersection of immigration status, gender dynamics,  
20 and geography. Central to this argument is how Manny's illegal status in the  
21 United States fundamentally suppresses his sense of identity and masculinity,  
22 and how the reversal of this dynamic, when the couple moves to Ecuador, has  
23 direct and damaging consequences for Lucia's mental health. In this article, I  
24 employ a close reading of Lee's *Everything Here Is Beautiful* alongside theories  
25 of diaspora studies, gender studies, and masculinity studies in order to illustrate  
26 the structural and geographical production of madness.

27 My analysis traces these inversions across two geographical contexts. In the  
28 US, Lucia's citizenship affords her independence and agency, while Manny's  
29 undocumented status renders him economically constrained and perpetually  
30 vulnerable to deportation. This shapes the balance of power in their relationship  
31 in ways that are particular to the diasporic context; Manny's illegality effectively  
32 neutralises the patriarchal power he might otherwise exercise, producing an  
33 unusual, if fragile, form of equality between them. Following their relocation to  
34 Ecuador, this balance shifts dramatically. Freed from the threat of deportation,  
35 Manny reasserts his masculinity and reclaims a sense of authority, while Lucia  
36 finds herself subject to the country's conservative gender expectations, resulting  
37 in a loss of independence and sense of self. I examine how this loss drives her  
38 mental deterioration in Ecuador and how it is only through a return to the US  
39 that she is able to reclaim her own agency. Through this analysis, the article  
40 illustrates the triangular connection between madness, gender, and diaspora in  
41 Lee's novel, demonstrating how geography does not merely provide a backdrop  
42 for Lucia's illness but actively produces the conditions for it. In so doing, I  
43 contribute to broader conversations about how women's mental health is shaped  
44 by displacement, legal status, and the gendered expectations that shift across  
45 national and cultural contexts.

46

1 *A note on 'madness'*

2

3 In my analysis of Lucia's mental deterioration, I use the term 'madness' due  
4 to the relatively undefined nature of her mental illness. While she may be  
5 diagnosed with different disorders at various points in the novel, no single  
6 diagnosis is clarified or confirmed, and thus the term 'madness' is used as an  
7 encompassing term for her various mental health struggles. My use of the term  
8 both registers and engages the problematics of its general usage. Colloquially, it  
9 can describe mental illness and questionable behaviour, while it also conveys the  
10 stigma attached to the various conditions which it indiscriminately encompasses.  
11 Peter Beresford argues that for many who have been institutionalised, the word  
12 carries fear and stigma, having been used against them rather than for them (3).  
13 Given these complexities of definition, usage, and experience, my literary  
14 critical reading of portrayals of madness in this article is best served by the  
15 redeployment of the term in Mad Studies, a recently established field of  
16 scholarship, theory, and activism deriving from the lived experiences of those  
17 who view themselves as mad, thus reclaiming the term in the same way that  
18 'queer' has been redeployed as a term of identity and resistance. Alison Faulkner  
19 argues that Mad Studies is a project that "validat[es] and celebrat[es] survivor  
20 experiences and cultures and present[s] a multi-disciplinary and transformative  
21 challenge to biomedical psychiatry" (513). What is significant about Mad  
22 Studies is that it is a form of activism that attempts not only to spark  
23 conversations about the treatment of patients of madness, but also actively seeks  
24 transformation within the field of psychiatry. I use the term madness  
25 intentionally to analyse how the portrayal of madness in Lee's novel can  
26 comment on broader social issues in relation to gender and diaspora.

27 Diaspora literature has been recognised as a valuable lens for understanding  
28 diasporic experience precisely because it captures the nuanced, fluid nature of  
29 diasporic identities and social practices (Abebe, 56). While existing scholarship  
30 has examined the relationship between diaspora and mental health, particularly  
31 in relation to generational trauma, this body of work also includes analyses of  
32 identity formation in second-generation immigrants (Brubaker 5; Levitt and  
33 Waters, 17). This article contributes to that scholarship by examining how these  
34 forces operate in Lee's *Everything Here Is Beautiful* specifically. However, this  
35 existing scholarship has often neglected the role of gender in shaping diasporic  
36 experiences and their psychological consequences. Gender has been  
37 underrepresented in diaspora studies (Godin, 154), and where it does appear, the  
38 focus has been predominantly on women's experiences (Al-Ali, 39; Jolly and  
39 Reeves, 1). Male migrants have been rendered invisible in scholarship, cast  
40 either as patriarchal dominators or criminal threats rather than as structurally  
41 produced subjects. This lack of attention to gendered dimensions is also evident  
42 in broader migration scholarship, where Boyd and Grieco (n.p.) note the limited  
43 incorporation of gender into theoretical frameworks. This article attends to both  
44 a female and a male diasporic experience, and it is the intersection of these two  
45 gendered experiences that produces the conditions for Lucia's madness. Yet even  
46 this gendered approach has not fully accounted for the specific intersection of

1 illegal immigration status, masculine identity, and women’s mental health.  
2 Scholars have examined diaspora and mental health, and scholars have examined  
3 gender and migration; however, the intersection of these factors in contemporary  
4 diaspora fiction has received limited critical attention. This article addresses this  
5 gap by demonstrating how Manny’s undocumented status, and the structural  
6 inversion of power it produces, is not incidental to Lucia’s madness but  
7 constitutive of it. Lee’s novel is a particularly productive site for this analysis  
8 because it portrays these dynamics across multiple geographical contexts,  
9 allowing for a comparative reading of how geography itself produces the  
10 conditions for mental deterioration.

11  
12 *Diaspora and identity formation*  
13

14 An integral part of my investigation of Lucia’s madness considers the  
15 connection between her identity formation, her madness, and her experience  
16 with the Chinese diaspora. The term ‘diaspora’ originated with the Jewish  
17 Diaspora, but over time has evolved to describe different forms of dispersion,  
18 and in a twenty-first century context, includes the realities of forced and  
19 voluntary migration today. While there are different understandings of what  
20 exactly ‘diaspora’ entails, for the purposes of this argument, I draw on Rogers  
21 Brubaker’s definition, which is more inclusive and flexible than definitions set  
22 out by other theorists such as William Safran. In his definition, Brubaker  
23 provides three categories of diaspora: “The first is dispersion in space; the  
24 second, orientation to a ‘homeland’; and the third, boundary-maintenance” (5).  
25 While more traditional views of diaspora emphasise the connection to a specific  
26 home country along with a desire to return to the homeland, Brubaker’s  
27 definition does not necessarily require a planned or wished-for return to the  
28 homeland, or even a connection to a specific place. Instead, the retaining of a  
29 home culture and religion is more important than the link to a specific concrete  
30 place or country. This is significant in cases where, as in the case of the Bok  
31 family in the novel, a return to the home country is impossible, and thus never  
32 even considered. However, while a return may not be possible, the family still  
33 retains strong connections to their Chinese traditions and culture. In other words,  
34 even if there is some form of integration into the host society resulting in a dual  
35 identity — specifically in the case of second-generation immigrants — the  
36 diaspora can be maintained as long as the cultural and religious community still  
37 exists and thrives. The Bok family’s visits to Chinatown and adherence to  
38 Chinese traditions align with Brubaker’s ‘boundary-maintenance,’ demonstrating  
39 how diaspora is sustained through cultural practices rather than a physical  
40 homeland. Even though Lucia is born in the US, she is brought up in a Chinese  
41 household and as an adult, she still speaks “Chinese, [she cooks] Chinese food,  
42 practice tai-chi on occasion and drink oolong tea” (Lee, 166). However, as I will  
43 show, the retaining of this connection to a homeland can have a significant  
44 impact on the identity formation of second-generation immigrants like Lucia.  
45 Because she is born in the US, she does not experience the trauma of leaving  
46 their home country and settle in a new one like her mother and sister. However,

1 she is the recipient of her family’s trauma, often referred to as generational or  
 2 historical trauma. As Strassner and Calnan write, “research shows that children  
 3 are impacted even before birth by trauma that is experienced by their mothers”  
 4 (325). Moreover, Lucia does not only inherit her family’s trauma but grows up  
 5 having to negotiate the Chinese values and traditions of her home with the more  
 6 liberal American culture of her birthplace. In fact, while she retains a connection  
 7 to her culture, she does not understand being seen as purely Chinese, wondering:  
 8 “I’m human first, aren’t I? Aren’t we all?” (Lee, 166). It is this difficulty in  
 9 reconciling seemingly opposing cultural identities that contribute to the decline  
 10 in her mental health.

### 11 *Gender and migration*

14 My main argument focuses on the gender roles and how these intersect with  
 15 the experiences of migrants. However, despite high numbers of women  
 16 migrating, both voluntarily and involuntarily, research on female migrants is still  
 17 very limited in comparison to research conducted on male migrants. According  
 18 to Marie Godin, because “gender was [only] treated as an appendix in the field  
 19 of diaspora studies”, it means that “for a very long time, social heterogeneities  
 20 within diasporas formation were overlooked and theoretical accounts were  
 21 mainly told in genderless ways” (154). In their report on incorporating gender  
 22 into international migration theory, Monica Boyd and Elizabeth Grieco agree  
 23 that for the last quarter of the twentieth century there has been little concerted  
 24 effort to incorporate gender into theories of international migration. Yet,  
 25 understanding gender is critical in the migration context” (n.p.). Naje Al-Ali  
 26 writes that the determining factors behind decisions to migrate, such as war, do  
 27 not affect men and women in the same ways. Significantly, she writes that gender  
 28 — which is a “social and cultural construction of what it means to be a man and  
 29 a woman — also comes into play during the flight from a war-torn country, the  
 30 upheavals of migration and settling in a new environment” (39). Al-Ali also  
 31 points to the notion that gender is constructed by societal and cultural notions  
 32 about men and women, which is an important factor to consider in men and  
 33 women’s differing experiences not only of life, but of migration and diaspora  
 34 (39). Furthermore, migration may “also entrench traditional roles and  
 35 inequalities and expose women to new vulnerabilities as the result of precarious  
 36 legal status, exclusion and isolation” (Jolly and Reeves, 1). As we will see in my  
 37 analysis of Lucia and Manny’s relationship and the shifting gender roles, the  
 38 novel portrays two gendered experiences of diaspora, which are intertwined by  
 39 what Manny’s diasporic position enables or constrains and how these impact  
 40 Lucia’s agency and lack of agency.

### 42 *Illegal immigration, fictive kinship, and masculinity*

44 While Lucia’s mental health is shaped by her experiences within the Chinese  
 45 diaspora in the US, Manny’s identity as a man is shaped by his undocumented  
 46 status in the US. In relation to this, my analysis will consider two aspects. Firstly,

1 I consider the ways in which Manny forms connections with other  
2 undocumented immigrants, entering into ‘fictive kinship’. After Lucia falls  
3 pregnant with their daughter Essy, she moves into the house that Manny shares  
4 with other undocumented migrants. These migrants come from different  
5 countries and are in the US for varying reasons, coming together because of what  
6 they have in common. Due to their undocumented status, they form a type of  
7 community where little personal information may be shared, but where they  
8 watch out for one another, becoming a kind of substitute family. In my  
9 exploration of this, I draw on the work of Carol Stack (1974), who coined the  
10 term ‘fictive kin’ to describe how families in conditions of poverty adapt by  
11 forming large supportive networks. In her article on undocumented restaurant  
12 workers in the US, Esther Kim (2009) applies the term ‘fictive kinship’ in  
13 explaining how these workers create social cohesion, which serves as a source  
14 of solidarity and identification for individuals who are otherwise pushed to the  
15 periphery by the dominant society, and that despite their illegal status and low  
16 earnings, this group of undocumented workers is able to maintain their dignity,  
17 find joy, and attain a sense of belonging through integration into a pseudo-family  
18 structure. I use this same understanding of the term to analyse how Manny relies  
19 on the household of undocumented immigrants as a substitute for a real family  
20 in the US. Secondly, and more importantly, I analyse how Manny’s illegal status  
21 impacts his masculinity and, by extension, how this contributes to Lucia’s mental  
22 health. In this analysis, I look to Raewyn W. Connell and James W.  
23 Messerschmidt’s (2005) concept of hegemonic masculinity as a context-  
24 dependent configuration of practice rather than a fixed type. In other words,  
25 different masculinities can be arranged in hierarchies, and hegemonic  
26 masculinity is distinguished from marginalised masculinity, which “share many  
27 characteristics of hegemonic masculinity but are also structurally marginalized  
28 due to race, class, or nationality”, or, in the case of Manny, documentation status  
29 (Silva, 1). Drawing on this theory, I will consider the geography of masculinity  
30 and how what counts as dominant or subordinate masculine practices can shift  
31 across local, regional, and global contexts. Lastly, I examine how these structural  
32 reconfigurations of Manny’s masculine position produce the conditions for  
33 Lucia’s mental health to thrive or deteriorate.

34

35 *Geography and gender dynamics*

36

37 While my analysis focuses on how Manny’s masculine positions impact  
38 Lucia’s madness, it is necessary to consider the full context of Lucia’s madness,  
39 as some of her episodes occur before she meets Manny. The novel portrays the  
40 incompatibility between the liberal American culture and the more traditional  
41 Chinese culture as one of the main factors contributing to Lucia’s mental  
42 deterioration. This incompatibility is portrayed through Lucia’s relationship with  
43 her mother. When adults migrate to a new country, especially when they move  
44 from a conservative country to a Western country with more liberal societies,  
45 they usually try to maintain their cultural practices and values within the home  
46 and attempt to raise their children with those values. According to Peggy Levitt,

1 this becomes much easier when large groups of the same country or culture  
 2 migrate, since “they organize themselves transnationally [...] thereby enabling  
 3 migrants to meet most of their needs” (134). The sisters often visit Chinatown to  
 4 buy Chinese food such as “taro milk tea” (Lee, 188). However, because the  
 5 children are often more exposed to the more liberal society through school,  
 6 extracurricular activities, and new friends, they may struggle to accept the values  
 7 of their home culture, which can result in a clash between the parents and the  
 8 children. Levitt and Waters refer to this type of assimilation as a “‘straight-line’  
 9 model of assimilation [...] where] the second generation learns an immigrant  
 10 culture at home but encounters the more highly valued American native culture  
 11 in school, among their peer groups, and from the mass media” (15). Such  
 12 assimilation could result in tension between the generations but they are then  
 13 ultimately able to forge “an ethnic culture that combines the American and  
 14 immigrant social systems” (Levitt and Waters, 15). In the novel, Lucia is  
 15 portrayed as a free, American spirit, which their mother attributes to a lack of  
 16 memories of China and suffering. In her narration, Miranda states: “Our mother  
 17 always said Lucia was different — restless, wild, born on American soil” (Lee,  
 18 33). As an American, Lucia has the freedom her mother was searching for when  
 19 leaving China, yet her mother does not entirely approve of the effects this has on  
 20 her daughter. When Lucia asked if her mother was happy staying with her father  
 21 after he had shamed the family, her mother answers, “Happy? Aiya, Xiao-mei,  
 22 you want too much, don’t be greedy. This is too much American” (Lee, 186).  
 23 While Lucia protests that their mother came to the US to be an American, this  
 24 shows the differences in their views. Their mother views the need for happiness  
 25 in a relationship as greedy. Instead, she seems to value hard work and survival  
 26 as more important than happiness, while Lucia struggles to accept the clash  
 27 between her American identity and the expectations for her mother.

28 While Lucia is portrayed as a free spirit, she struggles to accept the clash  
 29 between her American identity and the expectations of her mother. When she,  
 30 having spent time working in South American countries, is asked by a potential  
 31 employer why she has spent so much time there, Lucia is confused:

32  
 33 But what would it be, I wonder, to conduct one’s life as a Chinese life instead of  
 34 just a life? I speak Chinese, I cook Chinese food, practice tai-chi on occasion and  
 35 drink oolong tea, but to flaunt one’s authenticity seems terribly gauche. I’m human  
 36 first, aren’t I? Aren’t we all? (Lee, 165)

37  
 38 For Lucia, then, the expectation that she must “flaunt [her] authenticity” is  
 39 problematic, and she questions the focus on identifying according to specific  
 40 cultures. In addition, she rejects the idea of cultures being exclusive, arguing that  
 41 her identity as a human being should be more important than the cultural skills  
 42 that she possesses or her race or culture. However, she must still contend with  
 43 society’s tendency to categorise people according to their cultures, which results  
 44 in people being treated unfairly. For the employer, her interest in South American  
 45 cultures means she is not Chinese enough, yet her mother constantly laments that  
 46 she is too American; even when she dreams of her mother, she is told that she is  
 47 too American (Lee, 248). Lucia displays intimate knowledge of her own culture

1 and her ability to speak Chinese, but her identity as an American means that she  
 2 can never fully claim her Chinese heritage. Even though she is a second-  
 3 generation immigrant, and she is portrayed as struggling with the seemingly  
 4 opposing Chinese and American identities, her madness — variously diagnosed  
 5 as Schizophrenia, Schizoaffective Disorder, and Bipolar with psychotic features  
 6 — is illustrated as the result of stressful or important moments in her life (Lee,  
 7 101). According to Hooley, Woodberry, and Ferriter, while Schizophrenia and  
 8 Bipolar Disorder are biologically based, they “appear to be forms of pathology  
 9 that are best understood within the context of a diathesis-stress (or vulnerability-  
 10 stress) model” (205). In other words, environmental factors can also be  
 11 considered in examinations of the disorders since external factors such as stress  
 12 or abuse may contribute or exacerbate the symptoms. When Lucia’s first mental  
 13 breakdown occurs after finishing graduate school, one doctor tells Miranda that  
 14 “such episodes could be triggered by stress, or drugs, or trauma, or exhaustion.  
 15 Or sometimes, nothing at all” (Lee, 20). Since disorders such as Schizophrenia  
 16 are biological in nature, this could be the case, but the novel does suggest that  
 17 stress plays a role in Lucia’s mental state since the psychotic breakdowns  
 18 presented all occur in conjunction with significant events in her life.

19 Lucia’s worst episode occurs after the birth of her baby, Essy, whom she  
 20 shares with Manny. In Manny’s description of Lucia’s madness, she is presented  
 21 as a danger to Essy. At first there are signs that Lucia is not mentally well, which  
 22 gradually worsen to the point of what can be viewed as madness. Manny does  
 23 not know about Lucia’s past experiences with madness and thus does not  
 24 understand what is happening, believing that she is simply a bad mother.  
 25 However, this description illustrates signs of Schizophrenia since she is not only  
 26 paranoid, but experiences hallucinations too. More alarming to Manny is the fact  
 27 that Lucia stops touching her baby. This results in Essy cutting herself with her  
 28 too-long nails that Lucia has not cut, as well as having to stay in her dirty diaper  
 29 for too long. The evidence that Manny provides paints Lucia as a mother who is  
 30 neglecting her child which, according to societal standards, is unacceptable.  
 31 According to conventional gender expectations, women are automatically  
 32 supposed to be caring and nurturing, as well as good at mothering. Thus, when  
 33 mothers struggle to connect with their children or display the kind of neglect  
 34 seen in Lucia’s behaviour, they are viewed as defective and abnormal. However,  
 35 it is one of their housemates, Susi, who reveals that Lucia’s seeming neglect of  
 36 Essy may be due to something more profound than simply being a bad mother:

37  
 38 Susi said this happened to women sometimes. ‘Postpartum depression,’ she said.  
 39 She was proud to use these words. ‘How would you know?’ I asked. ‘She has a  
 40 hole inside her. Gigante. Where the baby used to be. Boom, bam.’ She clapped  
 41 loudly. ‘You think a body can take this, like it’s nothing? How can a woman be fine  
 42 like this?’ (Lee, 72)

43 While this is not a formal diagnosis, Susi’s description points to the trauma  
 44 of childbirth, and how the physical separation can affect new mothers. According  
 45 to Sword et al., “childbirth is a complex life event associated with numerous  
 46 biological, familial and social changes, [and thus] it may trigger psychiatric  
 47 mood disturbances in women with predisposing genetic or psychosocial

1 vulnerabilities” (51). In addition to having to navigate life as a new mother, Lucia  
2 has to do so in a specific diasporic context, without the usual support structures  
3 that could have aided her. Her mother has passed, her relationship with her sister  
4 is strained, and she lives in a household with undocumented immigrants and a  
5 partner who does not understand her history of mental illness. It is, therefore, no  
6 surprise that the event would affect Lucia’s mental well-being. However,  
7 because of the general expectation that women should become mothers, there is  
8 also the expectation that women would do well during childbirth and would  
9 naturally excel at motherhood. Thus, when women such as Lucia struggle with  
10 their mental health, resulting in the neglect of their babies, they are viewed as  
11 unnatural or crazy. However, as Habel et al. write, when new mothers’ “sense of  
12 themselves as women and as mothers [falls] short of societal expectations, this  
13 [has] a negative effect on their psychological well-being” (731). While Susi uses  
14 the term for this — ‘postpartum depression’ — Lucia’s symptoms point to  
15 postpartum psychosis, a more severe form of postpartum depression. Postpartum  
16 psychosis is also more dangerous since it “can develop rapidly and place the life  
17 of mother and infant in danger related to its symptoms which may include  
18 delusions, hallucinations, severe mood symptoms and cognitive symptoms”  
19 (Friedman, Reed and Ross, 65). Because Lucia’s hallucinations result in Essy  
20 hurting herself with her too-long fingernails and being in danger of infection as  
21 a result of Lucia’s neglect, her madness can be classified as psychosis instead of  
22 simply depression. The episode underscores how Lucia’s madness is not simply  
23 a medical condition, but shaped by the impossible demands of migration and  
24 motherhood.

25 Susi’s explanation provides the reader with some sympathy for Lucia, but it  
26 is only in her own narrative that the reader can gain an understanding of her  
27 madness and her behaviour as a result of this postpartum psychosis. Since she  
28 has experienced psychotic breakdowns before, she would have been on  
29 medication, but when she is newly pregnant with Essy, she decides to give up  
30 her medication (Lee, 181). She would live her life, believing that she would have  
31 “forty week’s truce — peace, the serpents in hibernation” (Lee, 181). These  
32 serpents are snakes who, according to Lucia, live in her head and whose job it is  
33 “to warn [her] of the dangers of motherhood” (Lee, 149). Serpents are often  
34 associated with evil and are seen as messengers of the supposed tragedy that will  
35 befall Essy if Lucia touches her more than twelve times. Significant about the  
36 presence of serpents is the connection to Lucia’s cultural heritage. According to  
37 Denise Chao, Chinese mythology “abounds with stories of snakes” (193) and,  
38 contrary to Western beliefs associating snakes with evil, “Chinese people  
39 deemed it a symbol of good luck and prosperity” (199). Consequently, Lucia  
40 would not only follow the serpents’ direction because she may fear for Essy’s  
41 life, but also because of the associations of good luck. In addition, it is significant  
42 that there are always two snakes who “spoke in opposite voices. If one was soft,  
43 the other was loud; if one politely reminded me to keep my hands to myself, the  
44 other said I deserved to have my arms lopped off” (149). The serpents are not  
45 merely a symptom of Lucia’s psychosis but are also portrayed as a manifestation  
46 of the inherited cultural memory that her mother’s migration brought into her

1 life. Thus, the choice of serpents is deliberate, illustrating the generational  
2 trauma that contributes to Lucia's madness. In the opposition seen in the image  
3 of the serpents, the theme of doubleness is present, while the juxtaposition  
4 between their voices point to the Chinese philosophical concept of yin and yang.  
5 The symbol for yin and yang is well-known, as are its associations with balance  
6 — usually the balance between good and evil, or dark and light, represented by  
7 the black and white teardrops of the symbol. However, according to Chinese  
8 cosmogeny, the symbol represents “human beings liv[ing] between heaven and  
9 earth and at the intersection of yin and yang” (Wang, 2). Thus, the association  
10 with balance comes from the notion that humans must “stay centered between  
11 heaven and earth and to maintain appropriate relations between yin and yang”  
12 (Wang, 2). The serpents then are interconnected but opposing forces, suggesting  
13 these notions of balance and harmony. The doubleness of these opposing forces  
14 also embodies the doubleness of Lucia's identity, and the struggles in negotiating  
15 Chinese and American culture. While Lucia is portrayed as assimilating into the  
16 US most easily and as the one least affected by the trauma of the family's  
17 migration, the trauma of the migration and her connection to Chinese culture are  
18 shown in her madness. While Lucia herself does not experience migration, and  
19 thus the trauma of migrating, she is nevertheless the recipient of her family's  
20 trauma, often referred to as generational trauma or historical trauma where  
21 trauma is handed down to generations who did not directly experience the  
22 specific events. In addition, “research shows that children are impacted even  
23 before birth by trauma that is experienced by their mothers” (Straussner and  
24 Calnan, 325). Thus, the Chinese symbols present in Lucia's madness illustrate  
25 that she bears the generational trauma handed down from her mother who  
26 arguably suffered the most in coming to the US since she lost her husband, had  
27 to migrate alone as a pregnant woman with a child, and eventually died of lung  
28 cancer. While Lucia's madness has a biological foundation, the novel also  
29 illustrates how it is triggered by specific environmental factors such as her  
30 relationship with Manny.

31 In addition to Manny's feelings of responsibility for Lucia's well-being and  
32 their daughter's safety, he must contend with his precarious position of being an  
33 undocumented immigrant. Manny, who is originally from Ecuador, immigrated  
34 to the US alone to make money to send back home. Because of the lack of  
35 biological family, he becomes part of a community of illegal immigrants, who  
36 live together and watch out for one another. This can be seen in the living  
37 situation of Lucia's partner, Manny, where eleven people who are unrelated live  
38 together, calling themselves “Vargas. [They] said [they] were cousins. It made  
39 [them] feel safe” (Lee, 46). This suggests that in lieu of a real family, the illegal  
40 immigrants stick together, taking care of one another and becoming a family.  
41 This household exemplifies the term ‘fictive kinship’, since the Vargas family  
42 employs this survival strategy in forming a substitute family to navigate the  
43 vulnerability that comes with being undocumented. For Manny, this substitute  
44 family provides emotional support but also reinforces his marginalised  
45 masculinity, as he lacks the authority of a traditional patriarch. While this kind  
46 of support structure is vital for their survival, there is still danger, since if any of

1 them are deported, the others are vulnerable to getting caught themselves. As a  
2 result, Manny is careful in everything he does, such as always starting the engine  
3 before driving, checking “the signal and lights [... driving at] exactly the speed  
4 limit, no more, no less” (Lee, 84). The risk of getting deported not only affects  
5 Manny’s behaviour, but his ability to assert himself and his masculinity, which  
6 is evident in the way he carries himself and how he treats Lucia. Lucia’s  
7 description of their meeting reveals that he seems to be fragile, and that because  
8 of the “way he stood in public, not quite raised to full height, hands in his  
9 pockets, downcast eyes, [she] knew he was an illegal” (Lee, 145). His entire  
10 demeanour suggests that when he is in public, Manny tries to be as small as  
11 possible, avoiding drawing any attention to himself. In addition, he is so afraid  
12 of getting caught that when he accidentally slices his hand open at work, he  
13 refuses to go to the hospital; instead, his boss wraps his hand as best as he can  
14 (Lee, 52). Their relationship in the US portrays a delicate equilibrium where  
15 Lucia’s citizenship grants her with freedom and agency while Manny’s  
16 undocumented status results in their relationship being precarious and at risk of  
17 collapsing under the weight of external forces such as the threat of deportation.  
18 By attempting to physically shrink himself, Manny is not simply expressing fear  
19 but enacting a structurally produced masculinity based on his fragile and  
20 vulnerable position in society. Connell and Messerschmidt argue that hegemonic  
21 masculinity involves “particular ways of representing and using men's bodies”  
22 and that bodies “participate in social action by delineating courses of social  
23 conduct” (851). Thus, Manny’s physical bearing is an embodied manifestation  
24 of a marginalised masculinity which is under structural threat. Through his fear  
25 of being deported, Manny’s body language represents the structural conditions  
26 of his legal status and, ironically, makes his undocumented status visible in his  
27 very posture.

28 While the novel does not delve into the effects that this type of migration  
29 has on Manny’s own mental health, it does reveal the sense of freedom that  
30 comes with legal immigration. Speaking of Lucia, Manny says that she is  
31 “confident she could get whatever she wanted. [Manny] supposed this was part  
32 of being American” (Lee, 52). In other words, because she is in America legally,  
33 she has nothing to fear when it comes to demanding what she wants, whereas he  
34 must always be careful. Even more significant about the power dynamics in their  
35 relationship than the contrast in their experiences of feelings is Manny’s  
36 precarious state within the relationship itself. Since Manny and Lucia have a  
37 child together, getting married — thus granting Manny a green card — is a  
38 logical solution to his fears of getting deported. However, during a conversation  
39 where Lucia probes how Manny is feeling, he does not answer: “He just looks  
40 at me with his dog brown eyes. But he doesn’t bring up what I think he’s going  
41 to bring up—the papers. So I don’t either. It’s awkward, complicated, and the  
42 truth is, I don’t want to get married again, not like this, anyway” (Lee, 173). The  
43 comparison to puppy eyes in referring to his “dog brown eyes” reinforce the  
44 reversal of gender dynamics. Through Lucia’s perception of Manny, he is placed  
45 in a visually supplicant and vulnerable position, while she inhabits the space of  
46 authority. This places a deliberate tension with the conventional expectation of

1 male dominance in a relationship. She is the one with agency, while he is  
2 dependent on her. This reversal of gender roles is emphasised when Lucia  
3 continues with her narration, stating: “But for Manny, well, it occurs to me that  
4 maybe there’s one thing he’s more scared of than getting deported—me” (Lee,  
5 173). Thus, Manny feels such powerlessness in the relationship that he would  
6 rather live with the threat of deportation than risk upsetting Lucia, giving her  
7 total control over their relationship. Manny confirms this in his narration of  
8 Lucia’s postpartum breakdown, stating that he “couldn’t understand what was  
9 happening inside her head”, resulting in him feeling as though he is “in control  
10 of nothing” (Lee, 74). Manny’s feeling of powerlessness is based on two  
11 elements then: His fear of being deported as well as his fear of Lucia’s mental  
12 instability. He is afraid to challenge Lucia because she holds power over his  
13 immigration status and because he does not know what could trigger Lucia’s  
14 psychosis, putting not only him, but also their daughter at risk. This structural  
15 lack of autonomy is what produces Lucia’s relative agency, creating a fragile  
16 inversion of gender dynamics. However, this powerlessness is not permanent but  
17 contingent on geography and is thus susceptible to reversal.

18 The importance of the geographic location in relation to Manny’s masculine  
19 position is further emphasised when the couple decides to move to Ecuador,  
20 where Manny is from. Connell and Messerschmidt argue that “regional and local  
21 constructions of hegemonic masculinity are shaped by the articulation of these  
22 gender systems with global processes” (849). In the novel, this is illustrated in  
23 how Manny’s masculinity is produced differently by the local gender order of  
24 the US, where he is constrained by his undocumented status, and the regional  
25 gender order of Ecuador, where he is a local man, not only free from the threat  
26 of deportation but also operating within much more conservative patriarchal  
27 norms. Whereas he is careful and vulnerable in the United States, his freedom in  
28 Ecuador means he can relax, resulting in a shift in the gender and power  
29 structures in his relationship with Lucia which, in turn, affects her mental health.  
30 At first, the freedom Manny experiences has a positive effect on their  
31 relationship. Lucia states that Manny is “confident in a way she has never seen  
32 before — the way his shoulders sit back, how he walks with a slight swagger,  
33 and for a while, this renews her sexual appetite” (Lee, 212). This suggests that  
34 the fear that comes with being an illegal immigrant affects his masculinity, which  
35 can be seen when Lucia, who viewed him as one of the ‘boys’ in the US, thinks  
36 of him as a “full-grown man, not a guy, a *novio*, one of the Vargas boys” (Lee,  
37 212, original italics). The distinction made between ‘boys’ and ‘man’ indicates  
38 the importance of masculinity and the way in which he can assert this now that  
39 he is no longer in danger of being deported. In their discussion on migrant men,  
40 Katherine Charsley and Helena Wray argue that these migrant men may attempt  
41 to “recoup or redefine a desirable masculine identity in the face of constraints or  
42 disappointments” (407). This is precisely what Manny does in his liberation from  
43 the suppression of his masculinity in the US. However, while this can be viewed  
44 as a positive form of freedom for him, it results in Lucia’s freedom slowly  
45 diminishing. Thus, his liberation simultaneously results in oppression for Lucia.  
46 This can also be attributed to the more conservative views regarding gender roles

1 and expectations in Ecuador. Here, women are expected to perform household  
2 chores such as cooking and cleaning, while men act as breadwinners. Manny's  
3 mother, for example, almost never stops cooking; when Lucia asks her what her  
4 plans are after lunch, she states that she will begin preparing dinner. Her days  
5 consist of "cooking, cleaning, harvesting fruits and vegetables from the earth.  
6 She has nowhere else to be, nothing else to achieve, only chore after chore after  
7 chore" (Lee, 209). When Manny, Lucia and Essy move into their own little  
8 house, Lucia must take care of these chores too, while she is also expected to  
9 have more children. Manny's female family members try to convince Lucia that  
10 Essy will be lonely as an only child, with his mother saying it "would be a shame  
11 not to have another" (Lee, 209). To them, this is the main role of women in  
12 society, and they believe that not fulfilling that role is a waste. Lucia, who does  
13 not want more children, feels this burden, noting that in most societies, women's  
14 identities are defined by their ability or willingness to have children because it  
15 always comes back to "this. Among women, always this" (Lee, 209). However,  
16 these expectations begin to weigh on Lucia's mind, affecting her happiness and,  
17 in turn, her ability to care for her mental health.

18 When Lucia becomes tired of her days being filled only with chores, she  
19 suggests to Manny that they move to town and open a laundromat. Part of her  
20 duties has been to wash their clothes in the river along with the other village  
21 women. Since she and Manny spoke about the possibility of opening a business  
22 in Ecuador before moving, she believes it would do her good, while also helping  
23 women save time by providing "a laundry service once a week" (Lee, 212).  
24 Manny's reaction illustrates how ingrained conservative ideals regarding gender  
25 roles are. Instead of having concerns about the viability of such an endeavour,  
26 he dismisses her idea by asking, "But what would the women do?" (Lee, 212).  
27 In other words, he believes that it is necessary for the women to have chores to  
28 do, and, without them, they would be bored. Manny's dismissal of Lucia can be  
29 connected to Connell and Messerschmidt's concept of "protest masculinity",  
30 where marginalised men claim "the power typical of hegemonic masculinities"  
31 even while they may lack "the economic resources and institutional authority  
32 that underpins the regional and global patterns" (847-848). Thus, Manny's  
33 reassertion of power over Lucia, denying her a form of agency, can be read as  
34 form of masculine reclamation after years of suppression. For Lucia, who has  
35 always valued and loved her work, Manny's response seems beyond  
36 comprehension. As a result, Lucia decides to move into the town for a few days  
37 every week by herself to do some work as a writer. While this decision is  
38 important for Lucia's mental health, the societal values of conservative Ecuador  
39 mean that this behaviour is frowned upon, drawing disapproval from Manny's  
40 family. Manny's mother asks her, "Why do you go, to be away from your family,  
41 your child?" (Lee, 234). Since women are valued as caregivers whose job is to  
42 be in the home, they view Lucia's wish to work as unnatural, specifically because  
43 it takes her away from her child. While it is not said outright, Manny's mother  
44 implies that Lucia is a bad mother. In addition, there is the suggestion that she  
45 should conform to the specific society in which she currently resides. When she  
46 explains that she was a news reporter in America, where she studied journalism,

1 an aunt replies that “this is not America”, while another insists that “Esperanza  
2 must miss [Lucia]” (Lee, 235). This points to one of the difficulties faced by  
3 immigrants; in order to be accepted in a certain society, you need to conform to  
4 that specific society’s values and expectations, no matter what you may have  
5 done in your home country. Usually, those within diasporas in the US and other  
6 Western countries struggle to adapt to the more liberal values and expectations.  
7 However, for Lucia, it is the other way around and she finds herself trapped in a  
8 place where she is unable to do the things she enjoys. Because the family  
9 disapproves, she withdraws from them, spending more and more time in the  
10 town, until her mental health begins to falter. She attempts to hatch a plan to take  
11 Essy and return to America without Manny’s knowledge, but once again finds  
12 herself trapped due to the country’s laws since she would need Manny to sign  
13 Essy’s exit papers for her to leave Ecuador (Lee, 254). This results in her  
14 panicking, becoming dizzy and feeling as though “each of her body’s limbs  
15 seems to have its own mind. She needs a plan. A scheme. She sees how it is, this  
16 scheme against women, to make a woman ask a man for permission to go  
17 somewhere with her own blood-child” (Lee, 254). In other words, the gender  
18 inequality in Ecuador, and the importance society places on the male as the head  
19 of the family, means that even though Essy is a US citizen, Lucia cannot take her  
20 anywhere without Manny’s approval.

21 Without any recourse to free herself, Lucia seems to give up, resigning from  
22 her job and returning to the village. The effects on her psychological well-being  
23 can be seen through her changes in demeanour. Manny notices the difference in  
24 her, but notes that it is “not in that erratic way she had been for months. This was  
25 something more fragile, more volatile” (Lee, 277). Instead of experiencing the  
26 symptoms of Schizophrenia, these are the symptoms of a woman who has given  
27 up on her independence and has resigned herself to the life expected of her in  
28 the conservative Ecuadorian society. The result, however, is that Lucia does  
29 become more erratic, hiding in the outhouse from supposed spies, and hurling  
30 boiling water at Manny when he suggests calling her sister for advice (Lee, 280-  
31 281). While it is unclear whether Lucia is taking her medication or not, her erratic  
32 and paranoid behaviour suggests that she is not taking care of her mental health.  
33 Significantly, however, this comments on the importance of work fulfilment to  
34 psychological well-being. The novel suggests that Lucia’s denial of a career  
35 removes her incentive for self-care. It has been established that job satisfaction  
36 can improve mental health, especially when the work is meaningful too. The  
37 strongest evidence for this can be found in the decline of hysteria diagnoses in  
38 women during the second world war; because men were away from home, many  
39 women took over their jobs, resulting in fewer women being hospitalised with  
40 nervous disorders or mental health problems. Allan et al. note that for mental  
41 health to improve, both job satisfaction and meaningful work are important in  
42 order “to lower anxiety and stress” (42). Thus, as Elaine Showalter argues,  
43 women are less prone to psychological breakdown “when they are given  
44 meaningful work” (195). The implication is that while women may find  
45 satisfaction within the family, for many women motherhood alone is not  
46 meaningful enough and, like Lucia, without meaningful work, their mental

1 health deteriorates. In the novel, then, it is precisely because of the denial of  
2 independence and agency that Lucia experiences another mental breakdown,  
3 leaving her to make an impossible decision for her survival.

4 Lucia's only recourse is to make the difficult decision to leave Essy behind  
5 and return to the US without her, a decision she makes when she finds out her  
6 ex-husband, Yonah, is dying of cancer, and she returns to take care of him. The  
7 difficulty in this decision is made clear in Lucia's attempts to take Essy with her  
8 earlier in the novel, where she contemplates leaving Manny and realises that she  
9 cannot do so without her daughter: "For a mother to leave a child, it's impossible.  
10 She cannot leave Essy behind" (Lee, 253). To then ultimately do so without Essy  
11 shows the internal conflict Lucia feels about the situation. She does not abandon  
12 her daughter without feeling the guilt, yet for her own mental health, it is the  
13 only thing she can do. Significantly, however, the novel does not give the reader  
14 access to Lucia's decision-making process since this section is narrated by  
15 Manny, who is simply told by Lucia that she is going to the US to help take care  
16 of her "friend" (Lee, 311). However, the portrayal of Lucia taking care of Yonah  
17 in his last days emphasises the necessity of this decision for her mental health.  
18 Even though her role as caretaker of Yonah is similar to those of a housewife,  
19 Lucia finds meaning in taking care of him, making sure he is comfortable during  
20 the last days of his life. Instead of feeling as though her wings are clipped by the  
21 duties of a housewife, or the gendered expectations of conservative societies,  
22 Lucia feels useful, taking charge of Yonah's routine, and making sure he is  
23 comfortable. The hospice nurse attests "to [Lucia's] diligence, the tenderness  
24 with which she tucked [Yonah's] blanket around his feet, brought ice chips to his  
25 lips, gently lifted his head from his pillow as she mopped the back of his neck  
26 with a cool washcloth" (Lee, 333). In addition to Lucia's feeling of usefulness,  
27 her partial recovery can also be attributed to the removal of the structural  
28 conditions that produced her deterioration in Ecuador. Silva's argument that  
29 masculine identities change as immigrants experience new contexts works in  
30 reverse here; back in the US, the conditions that enabled Manny's reassertion of  
31 masculine authority over Lucia no longer apply, and her agency is restored as a  
32 result. Significant to note here, is that in taking care of Yonah, Lucia embodies  
33 the gendered roles which she resisted when they were imposed on her by  
34 Manny's family. As Naomi Gerstel writes, "caregiving remains women's work  
35 far more than men's" (475). This implies that caregiving roles such as nursing  
36 are occupied mainly by women. A further implication is that when family  
37 members need care, it falls to women to provide this assistance. However, the  
38 novel subverts the idea that traditional gendered roles are inherently oppressive  
39 to women by showing Lucia finding fulfilment in caring for Yonah. This is  
40 because — in contrast to her experiences in Ecuador, where her agency is  
41 removed by the patriarchal structures — here, she has full control over her life,  
42 and she *chooses* to care for her ex-husband. Even Lucia's death, which occurs  
43 after Yonah has died, is not presented as the tragic result of her madness. Instead,  
44 Lucia stays behind in Yonah's house in Minnesota, packing up his things even  
45 after his children have left when, one night, she ventures out in a snowstorm and  
46 freezes to death. When she is found between the trunks of two maple trees the

1 next day — described in one of the few chapters narrated by an omniscient third-  
 2 person narrator — she looks “peaceful there, curled in that spot, as if she’s  
 3 squeezed herself into a place of safety” (Lee, 336). However, because the reader  
 4 is not given access to Lucia’s version of events, since the narration does not  
 5 include a description of her actual death, there is no knowing whether it is grief  
 6 or madness that propelled her out into the night. This is emphasised by the fact  
 7 that, as the narrator says, it is “impossible to know the truth of another’s interior  
 8 life” (Lee, 336). While the novel suggests that Lucia’s agency has been restored  
 9 in her return to the US, the lack of narration from her point of view and the  
 10 emphasis on the unknowability of her inner thoughts on the day of her death does  
 11 complicate this somewhat. While the analysis shows a clear correlation between  
 12 her geographic location and her mental health, the ambiguity of her death also  
 13 reinforces the nuances of her madness and even challenges the idea that  
 14 geography alone determines her well-being. However, the unknowability of  
 15 Lucia’s death does not undermine the novel’s portrayal of geography as a  
 16 contributing factor to her madness. Rather, the ambiguity emphasises that  
 17 madness cannot be reduced to any single cause.

18

19 *Conclusion*

20

21 Through Lucia and Manny’s relationship, Mira T. Lee illustrates how  
 22 madness is not a fixed state but a relational one, shaped by the geographies of  
 23 power that govern immigration, gender, and mental health. In the portrayal of  
 24 the gender dynamics between the two, first in the US, and then how it shifts  
 25 when they relocate to Ecuador, the novel shows how geographic locations can  
 26 inhibit masculinity on one hand, and suppress agency, on the other. Manny’s  
 27 precarious station in the US means that he is unable to assert his masculinity,  
 28 while his fear of Lucia’s madness renders him powerless in the relationship. In  
 29 Ecuador, however, the roles are reversed and Manny, no longer threatened by the  
 30 authorities, is able to assert himself as a man in a traditional patriarchal society,  
 31 while Lucia’s agency is suppressed by the traditional views and expectations of  
 32 her, along with the loss of agency that comes with being unable to take her  
 33 daughter Essy out of the country without Manny’s permission. Thus, Lucia’s  
 34 madness, while not inherently caused by geographic locations, is shown to be  
 35 exacerbated or alleviated by the structural inequalities she navigates as a woman  
 36 and as a migrant. In addition, Manny’s experience aligns with Connell and  
 37 Messerschmidt’s theory of hegemonic masculinity as context-dependent. In the  
 38 US, his undocumented status relegates him to a marginalised masculinity, while  
 39 in Ecuador, he performs a protest masculinity that reasserts dominance over  
 40 Lucia. This demonstrates how immigration does not just displace bodies but also  
 41 reconfigures gendered identities, with profound consequences for mental health.  
 42 Lucia’s final act — venturing into a snowstorm after having regained her agency  
 43 by choosing to leave Essy and Manny in Ecuador to care for her dying ex-  
 44 husband — resists easy interpretation. However, it underscores the main  
 45 argument of this article, that madness and freedom are never purely individual  
 46 but are always intertwined with the geographies of power that shape life. Lee’s

1 work thus contributes to a growing body of diaspora literature that demands we  
 2 recognise the systemic forces that impact the mental health and identity  
 3 formation of migrants. In the end, Lucia is found “peaceful there, curled in that  
 4 spot” (Lee, 336). Ultimately, *Everything Here Is Beautiful* challenges the reader  
 5 to confront uncomfortable truths about madness, gender, and migration: The  
 6 migrant's madness is not a private affliction but something produced at the  
 7 intersection of immigration status, gender expectations, and the structural  
 8 inequalities that determine who has agency and who does not.

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